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Editorial

THE NASHVILLE MEETING

The eleventh annual meeting of the Association, held at Nashville April 2 and 3, was eminently satisfactory. Local arrangements had been made with care and thoroughness; the president presided over the meetings with the tact and sureness of the born administrator; the papers and discussions were unusually good. It was a hard-working meeting, with a longer program than usual, made still longer by an unexpectedly protracted discussion of business affairs. Yet the social side of the program had not been neglected by those in charge. The reception at Vanderbilt University, the luncheon at the George Peabody College for Teachers, and the luncheon at the Hotel Hermitage, tendered by the business organizations of Nashville, were most enjoyable. And, as always, the informal renewal of acquaintance and friendship was after all the great thing.

We are sure that the writers of the other interesting and valuable papers will pardon us for singling out as the most opportune the paper of Professor Lawrence W. Cole, of the University of Colorado, on "General Intelligence and the Problem of Discipline." Although we already had faith that "the act and practice of learning is of more value than the information acquired, and the learning habit may be usefully applied after the data by means of which the habit is formed have been forgotten," it was worth a long trip to hear our faith justified by a professor of psychology and education; for it was a professor of psychology who first cast doubt on the belief, and professors of education are prone to teach that

psychologists have disproved it. The paper appears in this number of the *Journal*.

Professor Herbert J. Barton, of the University of Illinois, was elected president for the new year; Professor C. E. Little, of the George Peabody College for Teachers, first vice-president; Professor Louis E. Lord, of Oberlin College, secretary-treasurer; and Professor William G. Hale, of the University of Chicago, to succeed himself as a member of the Executive Committee. The Association regrets to lose the devoted and efficient service which Professor Barton has given it for four years, but it has secured a worthy successor in Professor Lord; and it congratulates itself that for one more year Professor Barton will give the same devoted service as president.

The Association will meet in Chicago next year, at the University of Chicago. The classical departments of the University will be better prepared for our entertainment than ever before because of the realization of their 23-year-long dream—the completion of the magnificent Classics Building, into which they have already moved.

THE "JOURNAL" AND "CLASSICAL PHILOLOGY"

The chief matter of business discussed and decided at the meeting of the Association was the relation of *Classical Philology* to the *Journal* and to the Association. It was decided that for the coming year the *Journal* shall be published, as now, by The University of Chicago Press, that it shall be increased in size, that the membership fee of the Association shall be unchanged, but that *Classical Philology* shall be sent only to those who pay an additional 40 cents. When it is remembered that the regular subscription price of *Classical Philology* is \$3.00, it will be seen that it is still virtually a gift to members of the Association.

Under the arrangement which has been in force for the past five years *Classical Philology* has been sent without further charge to all who have paid the membership fee. For this service the Association has paid 40 cents a member, a total of nearly \$750.00 for the current year. This price covers merely the cost of manufacturing and distributing the extra copies required, no part of

the original cost of editing and of composition. The University has not only made no profit by the transaction, but has actually lost money by it, since many of our members would have paid the regular subscription price for it if it had not been sent to them free. This arrangement has served to secure and maintain a bond of interest between practical teachers and professional scholars, classes whose fortunes are indissolubly connected.

Although the advantages to the Association of this arrangement are obvious, there are also certain disadvantages. There are many legitimate demands upon the finances of the Association, not the least of which is for an enlargement of the *Journal*; and while 40 cents a member is a small sum, it is nevertheless one-fifth of our entire income. Moreover, *Classical Philology* is professedly and in fact a journal of technical scholarship, not immediately serviceable or interesting to all our members. It has always been a question whether it was best to force all our members to pay for it, whether they wanted it or not.

The new arrangement increases our available income, is perfectly just both to those who do and to those who do not want *Classical Philology*, is equally generous on the part of the University, and offers *Classical Philology* at so low a price as to tempt all who can be tempted to read it. Under this arrangement payment is to be made to the secretary-treasurer of the Association, not to The University of Chicago Press. It is to be hoped that a very large number will avail themselves of this generous offer.

THE TENTH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF NEW ENGLAND

Many circumstances combined to make this a great and memorable meeting of the Association. The first of these is undoubtedly the fact that it was the tenth anniversary of the organization, and therefore the officers and members alike had decided to make it a grand reunion. The second reason for the success of the meeting is, I think, the place where it was held. No more admirable institution for holding such a meeting could be desired. The influence upon our minds of the dignity and the refinement of the Museum of Fine Arts seemed to increase as the brief hours of the

meeting passed. It was a fine thing to be able to roam at will through the vast rooms and to study as best we could in the short time at our disposal the many treasures of the Museum. Even this alone would have more than repaid us for the "loss" of the two days from the usual occupations of our busy lives. For expert and sympathetic assistance in studying the various works of art we were indebted to all the officers and attendants of the Museum, especially to Dr. Arthur Fairbanks and to Dr. Lacey D. Caskey. Moreover, on each day an excellent luncheon was served in the Museum, so that we did not have to waste time in going out for meals.

As the third of the "many circumstances" the good weather should possibly be mentioned. It was fortunate that the meeting did not come a week earlier! Over 150 members attended, according to the book provided by the secretary for registration, but surely a good many failed to register. The total enrolment of the Association is 373.

The meeting was called to order promptly on Friday morning by the president, Professor Alice Walton. Dr. Arthur Fairbanks, director of the Museum of Fine Arts, in a charmingly expressed address, extended a cordial welcome to the Association and invited us to devote all the time we could spare to the collections. To this President Walton made a fitting reply.

Of the papers presented this is not the place to speak in detail. It is enough to say that they were all of a high order, worthy of this, or of any other, association. Secretary Howes will soon have printed the usual summaries of all the papers, and many of them will be published in the *Journal*, or in other classical periodicals. Professor McCrea's most important and deeply interesting paper and Professor Allinson's fine appreciation of Professor Manatt's life and services appear in this number of the *Journal*.

In default of a representative from the Classical Association of the Middle West and South the greetings of that association were vicariously brought by Professor Charles U. Clark, of Yale University, who represented us at Nashville a week before our meeting. From the Classical Association of the Atlantic States we were fortunate in having with us both the president and the secretary. President W. F. Little extended the greetings, while Secretary

Charles Knapp gave us a noteworthy paper on the interpretation of the *Antigone* of Sophocles.

Without doubt the greatest event of the session was the reunion banquet, held in the Hotel Brunswick on Friday evening. It was in a room of this hotel that the Association was first formed ten years ago, and the details of that meeting, together with the names of those in attendance, were often given in conversation or in speeches during the evening. There *were* giants in those days: Goodwin, Seymour, Wright, and Manatt, for example. It is also equally true that giants are still in our midst.

Of the banquet itself little need be said. It was indeed excellent—all that could be desired. The memorable part in everyone's mind will always be the conversation, and the brief after-dinner speeches, nearly all of which were made by our former presidents. I cannot omit at least a reference to the exceedingly graceful way in which Miss Walton presided and to her charming introductions of the various speakers. If I were to select the two speakers whose words made the deepest impression and can never be forgotten, I should name Emeritus Professor Hewitt, of Williams, and Professor Adams, of Dartmouth. When Mr. William F. Abbot, of Worcester, was called upon to speak, he gave us a brief summary of the distinguished services of our secretary-treasurer, Professor George E. Howes, services without which the Association could not have reached its present high state of efficiency. The members showed by the prolonged applause with which they received these remarks just how thoroughly they appreciate the untiring energy and the brilliant success of Professor Howes. As soon as Mr. Abbot was allowed to continue, he proposed the following resolution, which was adopted with great enthusiasm:

The Classical Association of New England extends to Professor George E. Howes its heartfelt thanks for the great service which he has so modestly rendered in advancing its interests ever since the Association was formed.

The banquet was preceded by a tea for *all* members at the College Club. This was largely attended and much enjoyed. After the banquet the *men* were entertained at a smoker at the Harvard Club. I hesitate to mention the singing. It was a brave attempt to "start something," but even "Integer Vitae," "Gaudemus," and "Tipperary" were rather dismal failures! This

does not reflect upon those who tried so manfully to lead the singing, but rather upon the rest of us. May we have better luck next time! It was early Saturday morning when the last of us left this delightful place, a fact which shows how thoroughly we all enjoy the social side of these meetings.

No account of this session would be complete without some notice of the many discussions of matters suggested by the papers. Those in charge of the programs have always tried to provide ample time for discussion, but in general they have failed in greater or less degree. Within a limited time it is hard to secure a program to represent all of our many interests and also to allow for any discussion. Beginning with this year it has been decided to have our sessions cover two full days, while the number of papers has not been increased. In nearly every case this made possible all the discussion that was desired, and the members eagerly took advantage of the privilege.

At the Dartmouth meeting a year ago Dr. C. P. Clark moved that the Association favor some plan of sight examinations as the final and supreme test for promotion in the college Latin of the Freshman year. There was not sufficient time on that occasion properly to discuss this question and it was laid on the table. At the present meeting the question was taken from the table, fully discussed, and passed by an overwhelming vote.

The meeting next year will be held at Brown University, where this meeting would have been held, had it not been for the sudden death of Professor Manatt.

The names of the officers elected for the coming year follow: President, Dr. William T. Peck, Classical High School, Providence; Vice-President, Professor Edward K. Rand, Harvard University; Secretary-Treasurer, Professor George E. Howes, Williams College; Executive Committee (for two years), Professor Florence A. Gragg, Smith College, and Mr. Charles S. Knox, St. Paul's School, Concord, New Hampshire. (The members for one year are Miss Julia K. Ordway, Girls' Latin School, Boston, and Professor Joseph W. Hewitt, Wesleyan University.) Committee on Nominations, Professor George L. Hendrickson, Yale University, Professor Florence A. Gragg, Smith College, and Dr. Albert S. Perkins, Dorchester High School.

M. N. W.

THE EXAMINATIONS IN LATIN OF THE COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATION BOARD¹

BY NELSON G. MCCREA
Columbia University

It was with very great pleasure that I received the courteous invitation of your president to lay before you at this meeting an analysis of the results of the recent examinations in Latin of the College Entrance Examination Board. I recalled the very kind reception that you gave to my paper on this same subject at Worcester in 1913, and I ventured to accept this second invitation because I thought that upon this occasion I might be able, not only to present to you some very interesting and important facts, but also to offer some suggestions of a constructive character. For much of the material that I shall use I am indebted, as I was two years ago, to the ever-loyal help of the readers with whom I have been so long associated; but some of the most significant facts have been established by certain investigations into the records of the Board that Professor Fiske has been kind enough to have made.

There are two reasons why I am especially glad to speak to you at this time. In the first place, we have good cause to hope that the inquiry into the status of Latin in the secondary schools which is now being made by the Committee on Ancient Languages of the Commission of the National Education Association on the Reorganization of Secondary Education will result in definite improvements of various sorts. There is certainly need for such improvements. At the beginning of the third chapter of the very interesting volume entitled *Latin and Greek in American Education*, published in 1911, Professor Francis W. Kelsey uses these words:

There yet remains the question whether Latin and Greek as educational instruments are being utilized in our country in such a way as to yield the best results for training and culture. To this question a negative answer may unhesitatingly be given; but the causes are deep-seated and complex.

¹ This paper was read at the Tenth Annual Meeting of the Classical Association of New England, at Boston, April 10, 1915.

I cannot but think that if it shall be possible to interpret aright the results of college-entrance examinations when such examinations are held as those of the Board are held, some helpful contributions may be made to the discussion of this question.

But I am especially glad to speak to you for another reason also. It is now practically, though not absolutely, certain that June, 1915, will be the last June in which Harvard, Yale, and Princeton will hold separate examinations for admission, except in the case of candidates who choose the new plan at Harvard. If these three colleges do thus discontinue their separate examinations, the number of candidates examined in June otherwise than by the College Entrance Examination Board will be so very small proportionally that it will be possible to say with substantial truth that the Board has at last accomplished the object for which it was organized, this object being to offer to the candidate for admission to college, irrespective of the college which he selects, a single uniform series of examinations, in the administration of which *the schools should at every step be associated with the colleges for the mutually satisfactory determination of a mutually interesting result*. Now, it is possible, of course, to think of the College Entrance Examination Board simply as an examining and rating machine, whose object is merely to provide for the several colleges a uniform way of testing the acceptability of the candidates for admission, and which has no larger or finer purpose. But I venture to think that, upon reflection, every broad-minded teacher will feel the truth of the following paragraph, taken from President Butler's letter of resignation as chairman of the Board after twelve years of service:

In my judgment, the College Entrance Examination Board is by far the most useful single constructive force that has ever come into the field of American secondary and collegiate education. It has not only brought the colleges together in joint effort; it has not only helped to standardize the work of secondary schools throughout the country by its definitions of subjects of instruction and examination; but it has successfully performed the still more important service of bringing both colleges and the secondary schools into close and effective co-operation for the purpose of dealing in a truly educational spirit with the transition from school to college.

I bespeak, therefore, for the Board and its committees, and especially, of course, for the examiners and readers in Latin, your most active and sympathetic co-operation. Hereafter, to a notably greater extent than ever before, the schools and the colleges are to be *jointly* responsible for the conduct of every detail of examinations for entrance to college. Nothing is perfect, and we Latinists, even beyond others, are necessarily Progressives. The present committee of examiners and the present group of readers have done and will do all that in them lies to help to solve in the fairest and most reasonable way the problems involved in the examinations. But there must be serviceable ideas which have not occurred to us, and which we would be most grateful to receive, and I wish, in behalf of my colleagues and myself, to assure every teacher here present and every teacher who may do me the honor to read this paper when published, that every practical suggestion for the improvement of the work will be most welcome and will receive most careful attention. It is, of course, needless to say that no change is possible which would imperil the standard of the Board. Every change must rather make that standard more concretely operative, in ways that are sensible and fair. I am quite sure that here in New England where, as was shown in the statistics published by Professor Fiske in the *Educational Review* for February, 1912, the percentage of successful pupils in every Latin examination was far higher than the corresponding percentage of the total number examined by the Board, this question of the standard set by the character of the question paper will be viewed in the spirit of President Butler's letter. The standard of these examinations must do justice to the standard of thoroughly good teaching in the schools. It is highly desirable to this end that we who are teachers of Latin should have for our help much greater light than we have had as yet upon the actual efficiency of this teaching and upon the reasons, whether adequate or inadequate, why candidates in certain sections or schools do not attain the proficiency shown by candidates in other sections or schools. We cannot otherwise continue to make the work of the Board a constructive force in American education.

The general impression of the Latin readers last June was that the results were definitely better than usual. This impression was, on the whole, borne out by Professor Fiske's report for 1914. You have doubtless studied the table on p. 58, in which he gives the comparative statistics of the candidates who passed in the three years, 1912, 1913, and 1914. It is very encouraging to note in the Latin papers 4, 5, and 6 the improvement of the figures for 1913 over those for 1912, and of the figures for 1914 over those for 1913. It is encouraging, too, to note that last June the percentages of the recommended candidates who took and passed the question papers in the new requirements in Latin were all above 60 per cent, and that in papers 3, 4, and 5 the record was higher than in English A, and in papers 2 and 6 fell only a trifle below English A. But we must frankly admit that the situation is still quite unsatisfactory, at least to those of us (and I am sure that the members of this Association belong to this class) who are proud of our profession and jealous for its prestige. If you will recall the feelings with which you read in the October number of the *Classical Journal* Professor Wetmore's most interesting editorial on the results in grammar and Vergil that came under his own observation as a reader, you will not, I am sure, be surprised by the things which I have to tell you, and you will, I venture to hope, be disposed to consider very gravely, both today and in the immediate future, whether the teaching of Latin need be to so great an extent obviously futile. It is certainly startling to know, as we do know from Professor Wetmore's account, that, out of 680 candidates, 195 failed absolutely on the declension of *litteris*, and 242 on the declension of *fructum*; that 207 were wholly unable to give the pluperfect subjunctive active of *quaeres*, 215 the imperfect subjunctive passive of *reficiatur*, and 276 the present imperative active of *conquiescant*. The fact which he notes about the conjugation of *abdiderunt*, that 554 out of 680 candidates failed absolutely in their attempt to write the future indicative active, and that nearly all of this number wrote *abdabo*, *abdabis*, etc., raises an interesting educational question. As the paper in grammar presupposes the completion of the reading of Cicero, the candidate will have made the acquaintance of several different compounds of *-do*, and will

have met each compound a fairly considerable number of times. Thus, in addition to *abdo*, he will have met *condo*, *dedo*, *edo*, *perdo*, *prodo*, *reddo*, *trado*. May we infer, from the way in which *abdo* was conjugated by 81 per cent of the 680 candidates, that all these verbs, if called for, have been regarded as belonging to the first conjugation, like *do* itself and *circumdo*, which they also meet in Caesar and Cicero? I should be inclined to answer this question in the negative. It would, I fancy, be more likely that some of these compounds would have been correctly handled, others incorrectly. Yet from any rational point of view, *all* should have been right or *all* wrong. Do not sound principles of teaching require that as each new compound is encountered, it should be associated with the others of its kind—a kind, too, that, with the exception of *circumdo*, would from the beginning have been very carefully distinguished in the matter of forms from the simple verb? I cannot but think that in this case, as in many other cases in which defects are brought to light through the examinations, we should note carefully that soundest of sound educational principles, that things that belong together will be more easily remembered if grouped together, and that the observation of this grouping on the part of the pupil will help him materially in learning to reason logically.

In this connection, some statistics about the treatment of derivation should be considered. Those who took the examination in grammar were asked to explain the derivation of *forensi*, *reficiatur*, and *conviviis*. The report on this question covered 781 candidates. The results follow, the numbers after each word indicating in order the recipients of full credit, of partial credit, of no credit; *forensi*, 87, 263, 431; *reficiatur*, 297, 293, 191; *conviviis*, 29, 445, 307. The reader who made this report said in his letter: "Most of the perfect marks seem to come in groups—apparently from the same school. The number of absolute failures shows that this subject must be neglected in many schools." In view of these figures I should personally be grateful, perhaps we should all be grateful, for some information that would throw light on the practical value of the study of derivation as distinguished from its scientific value. If this study is really practically useful, as it would seem to be, in associating together in the pupil's mind words

that belong together, and in thus helping him to remember these words, why is it so neglected? How many teachers are there who have carefully tested its practical value and found it to be only "alleged"? The facts call for some discussion.

It is interesting to note that in each of the last three years, 1912, 1913, and 1914, the recommended candidates did distinctly better in each year in elementary composition (Latin 2) than in grammar (Latin 1). These papers, in accordance with the definitions of the Board, are set for the same school year. But if we find that recommended candidates show greater control of forms and syntax in composition than in an examination which deals with grammar alone, have we any reason to be surprised? Are we not here confronted by another absolutely sound educational principle that a working control of facts may be gained most naturally and most surely in immediate connection with the specific problem for the solution of which they are needed? I am disposed to believe that in practice we lay far too much emphasis in our teaching upon the knowledge of grammatical facts as such; so much emphasis, indeed, that we create unnecessary obstacles, and perhaps directly contribute, through our choice of method, to the poor showing made in this subject. I am disposed to believe that to a far greater extent than is now the case these facts should be learned simply because without their help one can neither translate Latin into English nor turn English into Latin. It is, after all, these two processes in which we are vitally interested, and grammar is a means to an end, and, except for the unusual student, a means only. Is it not true that an examination in prose composition is a far more rational test of a student's knowledge of grammar than separate paper in grammar? May we not properly raise the question whether the setting of a separate paper in grammar is educationally sound when we have at our command the complementary tests of sight translation and prose composition? I said two years ago that, in view of the normal character of the questions, the results in grammar were to me incomprehensible. They are so still; unless, indeed, they are partially due, as I have just suggested, to the fact that in attempting to pass the examination in grammar the candidates are attempting to reproduce

knowledge as such, whereas in the examination in composition they are using whatever knowledge they have as a tool, the end being to render into a foreign language a succession of ideas stated in English. In comparison with the second of these processes, the first is definitely less natural, definitely more difficult and treacherous, and, in my own judgment, definitely less educative.

I am able this year to present to you some very interesting statistics showing the relative proficiency in prepared work and in sight work of the candidates who offered 4 (Cicero and sight), and 5 (Vergil and sight). Table I was compiled for me in the office of the Board and includes all the answer books still on file. In Cicero 174 books and in Vergil 104 books could not be included because they had been sent to the colleges chosen by the candidates.

TABLE I

	Passed: Parts I and II	Failed: Parts I and II	Part I: Passed Part II: Failed Passed on Whole	Part I: Passed Part II: Failed Failed on Whole	Part II: Passed Part I: Failed Passed on Whole	Part II: Passed Part I: Failed Failed on Whole
LATIN 4. 920 CANDIDATES						
Number.....	378	305	42	44	108	43
Percentage ..	41.1	33.1	4.6	4.8	11.7	4.7
LATIN 5. 611 CANDIDATES						
Number.....	272	188	15	12	82	42
Percentage ..	44.5	30.8	2.4	2.0	13.4	6.9

You will observe that in Cicero 74.2 per cent of the 920 candidates were homogeneous successes or failures, and that the same is true of 75.3 per cent of the 611 candidates in Vergil. In other words, it is true of three-fourths of the candidates in Cicero and in Vergil that if competent they pass in both parts independently, and if incompetent they fail in both parts independently. You will observe further that in Cicero 16.3 per cent passed on the paper as a whole though they failed in one of its two parts, and that the saving power of sight translation in comparison with prepared work is as 11.7 per cent to 4.6 per cent. In the case of Vergil 15.8 per cent passed on the paper as a whole though failing on one of the two parts, and here again the greater efficiency in

sight translation is evident, the ratio being 13.4 per cent to 2.4 per cent. As Part I includes the questions on the subject-matter, it is interesting to note that, aside from those candidates who failed consistently in both parts, only 4.7 per cent of the 920 candidates in Cicero and 6.9 per cent of the 611 candidates in Vergil failed to pass the examination as a whole because, while passing in Part II, they failed in Part I. It would thus seem to be quite clear that the performance in these two subjects is substantially the same, with slight but definite superiority shown in Vergil. It is clear also that, in the case of those who succeed in one part only, the sight translation is being better done than the prepared work.

I have but one comment to bring to your attention in this connection. This is, however, a comment of importance. In 1913 and again in 1914, the readers complained of the fact that the sight translation was very frequently wrong, because a candidate who showed an adequate control of vocabulary, forms, and syntax would nevertheless achieve a most perverse rendering "by pulling words far out of their natural and proximate combination." Even very good books suffered heavily from this fault, and in many this blindness to the suggestion of the word-order was the chief cause of trouble. The idea in which I am interested at this point, like every other idea that this paper contains, is a purely practical one. I am in no wise concerned with theory, in no wise concerned with the value of knowledge for its own sake. I wish to urge the utilization of the order of words as affording one of the most helpful possible clues to the discovery of the idea expressed in those words. There is no question here of emphasis as indicated by word order. Rather, I wish to remind you of the familiar fact that in a Latin sentence the march of the words, or rather of the word-groups (for the word-groups are really the blocks with which the sentence is built), represents normally the gradual emergence of the idea into shape; that we have at work the principle of the moving picture; and that every well-taught student ought to know, by a sort of instinct, that, if he wishes to get the thought most quickly and most surely, he must under no circumstances get it except in the order in which the Latin writer has expressed it. But the order of words is most surely noted if the Latin be read aloud both in the pupil's

private preparation and in the classroom. To what extent, I wonder, is Latin read aloud for this purely practical reason? Let me state here the significant fact that in grammar 444 candidates out of 781 did not indicate the accent of *temporum* correctly.

You will recall, perhaps, that in my paper of two years ago I had much to say about the poor quality of the answers which were given to the questions on the papers in Cicero and Vergil. You will say of me today, "Eandem cantilenam canis." I must plead in excuse the pressure of the facts. Let me give you some statistics. The reports of the readers show that in the case of the following questions the number of answer books indicated after each received no credit at all: On Cicero *Pro Lege Manilia* 33: By what law was Pompey put in command of the war with the pirates? 81 out of 231. In what year? 162 out of 231. Where was Samos? 145 out of 231. Where was Misenum? 211 out of 231. Where was the place referred to in *Ostiense*? 149 out of 231. What force does *an vero* give to a question? 167 out of 231. What part of speech is *pro*? 157 out of 231. Explain the meaning of *quibus vitam ac spiritum ducitis*. 56 out of 101. On Vergil *Aeneid* iv. 371-87: Under what circumstances were these words spoken? 35 out of 124. State two reasons why it is natural for Dido to think first of Juno. 31 out of 124. How does the goddess show her pity at the close of Book iv? 58 out of 124. Explain the reference in *Saturnius*. 65 out of 124. Explain the reference in *Lycias sortes*. 90 out of 124. Explain the reference in *interpres divom*. 33 out of 124. On Vergil *Aeneid* vi. 791-807: What and where was *Latio*? 42 out of 92. What and where were *Caspia regna*? 68 out of 92. What and where was *Ausonia terra*? 40 out of 92.

Before I proceed to comment upon these answers of last June, let me add in the same way a few cases from the Vergil question-paper of 1913: On *Aeneid* i. 494-508: What had caused the feeling described in the first two verses of this passage? 45 out of 111. What are the two important elements in this description of Dido? 10 out of 111. (This question was unusually well handled.) Why was Aeneas already disposed to sympathize with her? 56 out of 111. Where were the *iuga Cynthi*? 98 out of 111. Who were the *Oreades*? 66 out of 111.

It is, I take it, quite clear, without the citation of further examples, that on the whole, the questions were not well answered. Let me remind you that the new requirements represent a compromise between opposing views, and that there are many today, both in school and in college, who believe that a thorough knowledge of some specified portion of Latin is essential for proper training. So far as I understand their position, these teachers believe in the desirability of learning, in connection with the authors that are read, a considerable number of facts of a culture-historical character, because of the value of the facts themselves. I do not now intend to discuss the problem from this standpoint. I wish instead to consider the desirability, or rather necessity, of knowing these facts, not for their own sake, but as a means to an end. Is it not an essentially vicious policy to allow young minds to form the habit of translating from a foreign language into the vernacular without gaining any clear conception in a concrete way, in terms of actual persons, places, and objects, of the ideas expressed by the words which they have so glibly or so haltingly used? There lurks in all language study the danger that the words will cease to be felt as merely representative of the facts or ideas and come to be regarded as things in themselves. Our rivals in natural science use against us with great force the argument that in laboratory work no student can escape vitalizing contact with concrete, objective reality. Whatever position may be taken with regard to the importance of knowing for their own sake the facts involved in the two prescribed speeches of Cicero and the three prescribed books of Vergil, is it not literally and inevitably true that a very considerable number of these facts are indispensable in order that the pupil may be trained always to translate with full consciousness that he is translating ideas about objective realities and is not juggling with mere words? What does it mean when 42 out of 92 candidates, picked at random, do not know where Latium was, further than, at the best, that it was somewhere in Italy? What does it mean when 40 out of 92 candidates do not know that *Ausonia terra* means Italy itself? What does it mean when 98 out of 111 candidates do not know where the *iuga Cynthi* were? Does it not for one thing mean this: That in an age in which apparatus,

such as maps, pictures, plans, models, etc., is exceedingly common, much being provided in the textbooks themselves, no proper use of a map, not to speak of other helps to visualization, could have been made? A distinguished professor of secondary education told me a little while ago that he had recently been in a school-room in which the class was translating that passage in the speech for the Manilian law, which deals with the raising of the siege of Cyzicus by the forces of Lucullus. To his astonishment, not a single reference was made during the hour to the proximity of Cyzicus to the Dardanelles, on which just now the eyes of the world are fastened. Is it a wonder that the ideas of our pupils are so hazy; that deprived of the stimulus which contact with actual concrete, objective fact normally gives to the human mind, they so often fail to become vitally interested in the work, and fail, therefore, to give the co-operation which the modern educational psychologist regards as indispensable for good results? For, as you know, it is held, and it seems to me with absolute justice, that teaching, to be good, must win what is called reflective attention and must lead the pupil "to realize a problem as his own, so that he is self-induced to attend in order to find out its answer."¹

Let me give you one luminous answer which was given last June to the following question set on the passage from the sixth book of the *Aeneid*: "What was Vergil's conception of the mission of Rome?" "I do not believe that Vergil had very much conception of the mission of Rome; although he wrote about it, I believe he borrowed his thoughts from Homer; he was said to have done this frequently, and why not here? For he was very much engrossed in the minor details of his poem."

If we Latinists expect to convince others of the value of Latin as an instrument in education, it is simply inconceivable that we should allow our pupils to translate (it may be into very decent English) authors who are essentially objective, without their knowing, in terms of the outer world, precisely what they mean by the words they are using. Difficult as the task may be, we must try to train as many as possible to think always in terms of the concrete fact. It follows then that, whether the facts of ancient life should

¹ John Dewey, *The School and the Child*, ed. by J. J. Findlay, p. 94.

be known for their own sake or not, *they must be known in connection with the reading of the passage whose meaning depends upon them.* It has been the purpose of the examiners who have framed all the question-papers under the new requirements to ask, in the main, only such questions on Cicero and Vergil as arose naturally out of the passage set for translation, and to ask, further, only such questions as were inevitable if the passage were to be understood concretely and not nebulously. I beg your consideration of this particular point. Is not our theory the correct one? It is, of course, quite possible that we may have failed at times in applying it. But is not the general principle not only sound, but in this connection the *only* sound principle? If a thousand *Oreades* gather around Diana, why should not the candidate who offers that passage know that these nymphs were not Naiads, nor yet Dryads, but Oreads, mountain-nymphs, as was indeed suitable for the huntress goddess? Yet 66 out of 111 candidates did not know this fact.

Table II, compiled for me in the office of the Board, may, I fancy, be regarded as fairly representing the performance of groups of some size in which the great majority of the candidates are well prepared. The treatment of the questions is noticeably inferior to the rest of the work. But it is interesting to observe how large is the proportion of those who did pass in the prescribed translation and would have passed in the questions also, if they had been able to secure a few more credits on the latter. A very little additional knowledge would have increased to a remarkable degree the percentage of those who passed separately in the questions.

TABLE II

Subject	Number of Candidates	Passed Prescribed Translation	Passed Questions	Passed Slight Translation	Passed P.T. and Q.	Failed P.T. and Q.	Passed P.T. Failed Q.	Failed P.T. Passed Q.	Passed P.T. 40-59 in Q.
4.....	108	92.6	31.5	82.4	31.5	7.4	61.1	0.0	43.5
5.....	66	93.9	31.8	86.4	31.8	6.0	62.2	0.0	40.9

I shall be grateful for some expression of opinion on a theory by which, in the endeavor to put it to the test of use, I have come to set some store. We must not ask our pupils to learn in any

formal way these facts of the ancient civilization until it is probable that they already know these facts. In so far as assigned work is concerned, the language itself demands all their time and energy. But the description or story of ancient life with which they are engaged must be made to seem real, alive, and *therefore* interesting. For this specific purpose, i.e., to enable his pupils to visualize and thereby to discover the intrinsic human interest of the tale, the teacher will use from week to week *all* the facts that are pertinent, and, by skilful repetition, will make *most* of these facts familiar to his class, without ever having made them the subject-matter, even partially, of a formally assigned lesson. When this point is reached but not earlier, these facts may properly be co-ordinated by formal study and recitation. In the pursuit of this end as in the pursuit of happiness, we must "by indirection find direction out."

In the article on the Board's examinations for 1911, published in the *Educational Review* for February, 1912, Professor Fiske divided the candidates into twelve groups, and showed in tabular form the performance of each group in comparison with the other groups and with the statistics of the examinations as a whole. The differences between the columns were very striking, some groups being far above the average, while other groups fell equally far below it. The new requirements in Latin, under which papers were set for the first time in 1911, have now been operative for four years. It occurred to me that it would be interesting to determine, if possible, the performance of a group of reasonable size, composed of candidates from schools that send all, or practically all, of their pupils to the Board's examinations exclusively. If it should appear that such a group, working in an environment presumably rather favorable to success, achieved after all only a *success d'estime*, one might fairly conclude that the standard of these question-papers was somewhat in advance of educational conditions. On the other hand, any noteworthy success would furnish irrefragable proof that in the future that could be done by more teachers and even by many which, as a matter of fact, had already been done by some. At my request, therefore, Professor Fiske had Tables III and IV compiled in the office of the Board. These tables represent the combined records of the candidates from seven schools of the kind

just described. As these schools are widely separated geographically and do their work amid very different surroundings, their combined performance may be taken to be fairly representative of what is possible under favorable educational conditions. A number of other schools might have been included, but it was felt by both Professor Fiske and myself that these seven furnished sufficient data. The tables need, I think, no explanation, further than that the figures under the caption B are taken from Professor Fiske's report for 1914, while those under the caption S give the statistics for the seven schools.

TABLE III
ALL CANDIDATES

SUBJECT	NUMBER		60-100		50-59		40-0	
	B	S	B	S	B	S	B	S
1.....	997	193	54.8	89.6	17.8	9.9	27.4	0.5
2.....	802	150	56.7	90.7	14.0	6.6	29.3	2.7
3.....	740	224	61.5	86.2	15.5	8.9	23.0	4.9
4.....	1,094	224	58.7	84.8	12.7	10.3	28.6	4.9
5.....	715	114	61.9	79.0	14.1	11.4	24.0	9.6
6.....	648	99	51.1	83.8	16.5	10.1	32.4	6.1

TABLE IV
RECOMMENDED CANDIDATES

SUBJECT	NUMBER		60-100		50-59		40-0	
	B	S	B	S	B	S	B	S
1.....	645	139	61.6	92.8	16.4	7.2	22.0	0.0
2.....	486	96	64.4	95.8	10.9	2.1	24.7	2.1
3.....	472	155	69.5	87.7	15.0	9.0	15.5	3.3
4.....	714	163	68.6	87.1	13.0	8.6	18.4	4.3
5.....	484	88	69.4	78.4	13.4	12.5	17.2	9.1
6.....	381	72	64.0	86.1	13.6	8.3	22.4	5.6

I need not analyze the results in detail. Suffice it to say that alike in the largeness of the percentage of the candidates of this group who secured 60 per cent or better, and in the smallness of the percentage of those who fell below 50 per cent, the two tables afford abundant ground for reflection. I beg you to note further that the number of candidates in this group is, in each examination-

subject, a very considerable fractional part of the total number examined by the Board in that subject.

The record of one of those schools proved to be so remarkable that I was unable to deny you the pleasure of seeing it. It will be observed that its candidates, recommended and non-recommended, took 59 separate examinations. In 54 the candidate passed, in 4 a grade of between 59 per cent and 50 per cent was secured, and in only one case did a candidate fall below 50 per cent. It is a matter of keen regret that I am prevented by the wise policy of the Board, not only from giving you the name of this school, but even from suggesting the slightest clue to its identity.

TABLE V

SUBJECT	RECOMMENDED CANDIDATES		NON-RECOMMENDED CANDIDATES		ALL CANDIDATES			
	Number	60-100	Number	60-100	Number	60-100	50-50	40-0
1.....	3	100.0	4	100.0	7	100.0	0.0	0.0
2.....	3	100.0	4	75.0	7	85.7	14.3	0.0
3.....	2	100.0	5	100.0	7	100.0	0.0	0.0
4.....	7	100.0	10	70.0	17	82.4	11.8	5.8
5.....	5	100.0	1	100.0	6	100.0	0.0	0.0
6.....	8	100.0	7	85.7	15	93.3	6.7	0.0

May we not take heart from these records of positive achievement? The general percentages of the Board in Latin are intolerably low. Is it not incumbent upon every self-respecting teacher of Latin, despite the difficulties, often very serious difficulties, with which he may have to contend, resolutely to decline to admit that others may be able to produce concrete, business-like results, but not he? In many places in the country and especially here in New England, the teaching of Latin is more keenly alive, more flexible and sympathetic in its adjustment to the rightful demands of modern life, than ever before. But it is far from being so everywhere, and the classical associations of the country must still inspire and show the way.

GENERAL INTELLIGENCE AND THE PROBLEM OF DISCIPLINE¹

BY LAWRENCE WOOSTER COLE
Professor of Psychology, University of Colorado

Education is believed by effective teachers to be "partly a matter of training and partly of information." Since it is believed in influential quarters that one subject is quite as good as another for training, let us consider for a moment some subject selected and taught for its value as information alone.

It is taught, let us say, in the fourth and fifth grades and again with added subject-matter in the seventh and eighth grades. Perhaps it is later reviewed in the high school. Yet no matter how thoroughly it is taught, in a few years the information is almost completely forgotten if its possessor has had no need to recur to it.

There is nothing strange about this. It is the very economy of the mind that it loses information which is not frequently used. The memory is not a filing-case, and if it were, we should find it necessary to remove its useless contents from time to time very much as the memory drops unused items of information. Certain early acquisitions of the memory remain permanent. All other information is continually being replaced by what learned later: This economy of the mind in forgetting furnishes the basis for much

¹ This paper was read at the Nashville meeting of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South.

The books and articles chiefly consulted and referred to in the preparation of this paper are: William Brown, *Mental Measurement*, pp. 132-33, 98-127; Cyril Burt, "Experimental Tests of General Intelligence," *Brit. Jour. of Psych.*, III (1909-10), 95-177; Bernard Hart and C. Spearman, "General Ability, Its Existence and Nature," *Brit. Jour. of Psych.*, V (1912-13), 51-84; G. E. Mueller, "Neue Versuche mit Rueckle," *Zeit. f. Psych. u. Physiol. d. Sinn.*, LXVII (1913), Hefte 3 u. 4; W. G. Sleight, "Memory and Formal Training," *Brit. Jour. of Psych.*, IV (1911), 386-457; C. Spearman, "The Theory of Two Factors," *Psych. Rev.*, XXI (1914), pp. 101-15; E. L. Thorndike, *Educational Psychology*, ed. 1903, pp. 29, 30, 34; ed. 1910, pp. 187-88; W. H. Winch, *When Should a Child Begin School?* pp. 3-6; *idem*, "The Transfer of Improvement of Memory in School Children," *Brit. Jour. of Psych.*, II (1906-08), 284-93; *idem*, "The Transfer of Improvement of Memory in School Children," *ibid.*, III (1909-10), 386-405; *idem*, "Some Relations between Substance Memory and Productive Imagination in School Children," *ibid.*, IV (1911), 95-125.

criticism of schools by persons who suppose that information is the sole aim of study. If it *were* the sole aim, I think myself that study and teaching would result in rather dismal failure.

Observing this rapid loss of facts and noting also that an educated man is somehow vastly more efficient than an uneducated man; noting also that the educated man always has at his disposal a great store of *new* information, all this, I think, led to the opinion of competent teachers that the act and practice of learning might be of more value than the information acquired, that the learning habit might be usefully applied after the data by means of which the habit was formed had been forgotten.

This is the pernicious and derided doctrine of discipline. There is no learning habit, it is replied. If you have a scholarly habit of crossing your *l*'s, it will not lead you also to dot your *i*'s. Crossing out *A*'s on a page of printed letters has only 52 per cent of relation to crossing *a*'s and *l*'s. Since the *a*'s make up 50 per cent of the work, perhaps the crossing out of *l*'s is a mental function almost totally independent of the function of crossing out *a*'s.

Such statistical results led at once to an atomistic conception of the mind. There is no faculty of perception, but a faculty or function of perceiving *a*'s and another faculty of perceiving *l*'s, etc., i.e., these functions are as numerous as the objective data to which they are applied. But let me quote.

There are no *few* elemental faculties or powers which pervade each a great number of mental traits so as to relate them closely together, . . . the mind must be regarded not as a functional unit nor even as a collection of a few general faculties which work irrespective of particular material, but rather as a *multitude* of functions each of which is related closely to only a few of its fellows, to others with greater and greater degrees of remoteness and to many to so slight a degree as eludes measurement. . . . The science of education should at once rid itself of its conception of the mind as a sort of machine different parts of which sense, perceive, discriminate, imagine, remember, conceive, associate, reason about, desire, choose, form habits, attend to. Such a conception was adapted to the uses of writers of books on general method and arguments for formal discipline, and barren descriptive psychologies, but such a mind nowhere exists [p. 29].

Forthwith the official science of education did rid itself of the old conception of mind and became entirely nebulous. But one

thing was apparently agreed upon, namely, that the word "training" should no longer be used in lectures on education nor be used in its definition.

This atomistic conception of the mind carries with it a new conception of the school. The school is no longer a place where the teacher contributes anything to the future welfare of his pupils. It is instead a selecting agency to pick out the bright pupils and eliminate all industrious mediocrity. The *successful* teacher is then the one who can most quickly convince the plodder that he must not aspire to scholarship. This turns the schools over to an entirely new type of persons as teachers. I confess that this conception of the school as an instrument of unnatural selection has always been distasteful to me and seemed a trifle too aristocratic for our democratic country.

We now have a right to ask whether this banishment of the idea of training from education rests on a thoroughly scientific basis, and whether any other interpretation of the facts is possible or probable.

The facts to be explained first are not derived from experiments which involved training. Those must be mentioned later. Since the Pearson formula showed little or no correlation between the results of the mental tests used, mental functions, it was concluded, are numerous and almost completely independent of each other. Recently the English mathematical psychologists have taken up the problem and they have refined the mathematical formula to be applied. To be brief, Professor Spearman, of University College, London, has taken the data already shown by the less refined method to give little or no correlation, and finds 91 per cent of correlation. From such evidence he concludes "that all the intellectual activity of any person depends in some degree on one and the same general fund of mental energy"—one of the oldest, most widely held hypotheses of psychology.¹

This is of course equivalent to the old view of general intelligence and is flatly opposed to the conception of mind as composed only of a multitude of specific, independent functions.

The result is that by this method of studying the mind we have reached a flat contradiction and dispute. It may require years to

¹ *Psych. Rev.*, p. 103.

decide which conclusion is the true one, and I for one dislike to give up the evidence of experience until experiment can make a better showing. The early results of correlation experiments so positively contradicted ordinary observation and experience that I could never persuade myself that the method is infallible, as it was assumed to be. If Professor Spearman is correct in his results the early work attained just the opposite of the truth.

But worse remains behind. Another investigator points out that "a correlation coefficient is only a statement of probabilities. It does not prove *anything*" (Brown, p. 132). "For the production of the hypothesis itself we must look elsewhere, viz., to psychological analysis and psychological insight" (Brown, p. 133).

We are then in the predicament of having changed our views of the mind and of education on very flimsy evidence, or perhaps on no evidence. Because the so-called proofs were given mathematical form we surrendered at discretion. Now the mathematical results seem to confirm the belief in general intelligence, of which belief we have just "rid ourselves." *Just as much* as the early computation was urged to show that "the effect of training is not transferred," the later computation may be adduced to show just the opposite. Neither showing would be valuable, I think, unless it were sustained by experiments designed to investigate the effects of training directly. Let us turn to these.

Long before the indirect, correlation method was devised, Professor James had found, after training himself by learning the first book of *Paradise Lost*, that he did not learn 158 lines of another poem as quickly as he had another 158 lines of the same poem before training. Two of his students did the same experiment and made considerable gain. Two others made no gain. Professor James himself admitted that "there was some question of the validity of the second test," because he had been considerably fatigued by other work. Though the results were surely inconclusive, the conclusion was drawn that one's native retentiveness is unchangeable. Since that time numerous more careful experiments have been made with just the opposite results. I referred to many of these experiments in the paper written for my colleague Dr. Norlin. I wish to

refer to one more, though it is an extreme case of the number-memory of a lightning calculator. The period of training, four years, was so long that very definite results appeared. Before training he could recite 25-36 figures which were read to him once; after training, 60 figures. The time required to learn 204 figures decreased to almost half the former time. In general, four years' training had almost doubled the grasp of his memory for numbers and diminished by one-half the time required for learning them. The effects of training were therefore enormous. Something much like this probably occurs in high-school students of Latin who cannot read ten lines at the opening of the year, but who read five or six pages at its close. Number-memory then is susceptible of change to an enormous degree by training.

But has such training both a direct and an indirect effect? Does the effect of training transfer or spread in some measure from the activity trained to related ones? Yes. It has been shown that learning 74 or 59 or 100 lines of poetry improved the ability to learn prose among the children tested. Fifty minutes of rote memory, for meaningless data, namely letters, distributed to each of three days, resulted in an improvement in substance-memory of 11 per cent, in experiments which seem to me very carefully planned and executed. In these experiments there was almost as much improvement transferred as was made in rote memory itself, which was directly practiced. This of course was exceptional. A small transfer, however, was uniformly present.

In other words, rote memorizing of *meaningless* data, such as letters, does help logical or substance memory to some extent. This transfer is suprising. I should have guessed, for example, that the severe training of verbal memory required in Latin and Greek would work prejudicially on substance memory, i.e., that verbal memory would take energy from substance memory and diminish its efficiency. The experimental results I have mentioned are evidence against such a guess.

Extremely long and *severe* memory training on numbers did diminish the efficiency of immediate memory for color names, for consonants, and for nonsense syllables, if we return to the tests of the memory of our mathematical prodigy once more. His training

continued for eight hours per day for four years. Few students will devote themselves so steadfastly to study.

However, this very fact that very intense and prolonged exercise of one mental activity seems to diminish the efficiency of others shows that the mind is not a lot of independent functions each of which must receive specific training if it is to be developed at all, as has been claimed with such tremendous authority. Instead, training in one type of memory immediately begins to benefit other types to a greater or less extent, exactly as competent teachers have long believed, and too prolonged training of one type appears to take energy from other types. This does not look like independence but like a common faculty at the basis of the several types. I do not mention memory because of its great importance, but because there are now ever so many careful studies of the effect of *training* the memory.

There is also one excellent experiment to test the effect on *imagination* of training in substance memory. "Improved memory resulted in improved work in imagination," notwithstanding we have always supposed that the routine of school crushed spontaneous fancy. When, however, training was carried to the point of fatiguing the memory, the imagination was also fatigued, or at least the practiced children then did worse than the unpracticed group in imagination. This fact throws much light on Professor James's early experiment. Since all these experiments on the effect of training were carried out on children, allowance was made for improvement due to growth.

Another investigator, Sleight, got similar results, but his mathematical treatment of them reduces their numerical amount in *some cases* but not in all. The major portion of his paper is devoted to computing away and explaining away the results of the experiments.

Winch's work, which I have quoted, seems to me the better. There will doubtless be discussion for a long time to come, but the independent-function notion is being tacitly abandoned, and experimental pedagogy is confirming more and more the observations of conscientious teachers. It is promising indeed to see educational psychology cease to dictate laws to nature and proceed instead to discover such laws. The dictation method was, however, always

a rather local affair. It was taken too seriously by official educators. That is all.

Almost without exception, therefore, when the effects of training have been studied by means of training, transfer of its effects have resulted. Correlational psychology seems to point also to general intelligence, though its evidence is not so certain as that of training experiments.

The psychologist Meumann is probably the greatest authority on experimental pedagogy. His conclusions may therefore be of interest.

It is always shown that the formal value of school practice is only moderate. If you subject a normally gifted child to artificial practice, his powers increase considerably in every respect. From such experimental results the conclusion is probably to be drawn that we must return to the principle of formal training in the *Volksschule*. . . . Especially the Belgian educator Von Biervliet has made demand to introduce the *purely* formal exercise of memory, perception, observation, and judgment into the *Volksschule* in order to increase the development of capability in the school child" [I, 466].

But Van Biervliet means training on *completely senseless* material. So Meumann objects to this but says, "I believe that we should do better to demand that school instruction use the given subject-matter more for formal discipline" (I, 467). Elsewhere (Baird, p. 350), he says, "It is absolutely necessary to introduce into the schools a formal training of the memory such as we have suggested. . . . The pupils' *purpose* should be awakened to the importance of the education of memory as such" (I, 469). These opinions of Meumann's are based on the most careful and extensive experiments on school children. Yet these opinions sound strangely like the despised doctrine of formal training which was held in America years ago and then pronounced a heresy by official educators. To this day perhaps no one in America would dare to hold such an opinion, yet it is interesting to translate it from this great authority who has been studying the pupils of schools by no means so surrendered to the doctrine of interest as are ours. Nevertheless an opinion quite similar to Meumann's has been held unflinchingly for some years by Professors Grandgent and Wendell. Thus the science and the art of teaching are coming to agree at last. Soon some further proof of a psychological doctrine will be demanded

than that it merely contradicts common-sense. I welcome the day, for it shows that our science will be useful. The experiments I have quoted show that there is both direct and indirect training of our powers, and the word "training" may again become a part of the definition and aim of education.

Relative to Latin and Greek, I do not think that their training value depends altogether or even largely on indirect or transferred training. I do not think it has been proved that there is one verbal memory for Greek words and still another for German, English, and Italian, unless one of these languages is taught visually, the other orally, by an appeal to the ear. Instead, it seems to me that I acquire German and French words by a memory and an interest which I developed by the study of Latin and Greek. Of course this means that I merely *read* these languages, but that is precisely what I wish to do with them.

Again, syntax seems to me a very general science and I seem to use the same power of discriminating meanings, relations, and constructions in reading German that I acquired in reading Latin. The parts of speech and their relations then seem so similar that I can imagine one instantly perceiving a relation and yet being quite unable to tell whether he first learned that relation from a German or a Latin grammar. Thinking the relations between the meanings of words seems to me almost a single process, though the words may be new and strange. Outside of languages, moreover, the number of relations seems to me so much smaller than the number of terms to be related that several realms of abstract thinking could be taught by practice in one. I cannot conceive, therefore, that the training value of Latin and Greek is altogether indirect.

(All the experimental work which I have read shows more and more relationship between types of mental activity the more it approaches the field of relational and abstract thinking and the more it leaves simple sensory reactions and simple motor performances. This again is one of the arguments for a common fund of energy or general intelligence.)

Should it prove that the memory and interest and discrimination acquired in the study of one language are used in the mastery of another, the matter is of importance, for Professor Wendell remarks

that the teaching of modern languages in America has failed. Yet they must somehow be taught, for it is now a common remark that "Volapük and Esperanto are the only dead languages."

At any rate, there is no experimental evidence that I can accept against this introspective belief of mine. Endowing a man with as many memories as there are different stuffs to be remembered depends only on the atomistic conception of the mind, and that is not established by any means.

True, the man on the street will say he has a poor memory for names, or for numbers, etc. But he is merely naming what he is careless about. Make his *living* depend on his memory of names, or of faces, or of signatures and he will surprise you with the suddenness of the development of his memory for these data. Men who have changed their occupations testify to this prompt change in the facts they remember. It is convenient to use the terms "memory-for-names," "number-memory," etc., to name the subject-matter remembered, but these terms do not show that there are all these different types of verbal memory.

While I have now claimed that the statistical psychology of correlation is as yet only a controversy and that, therefore, the atomistic conception of the mind based upon it is not established, you might readily be confronted by a psychologist who would retort that this is merely my opinion, and valueless just because it is not the opposite view. Consequently I ought to support my assertion by reference to a great authority. Professor Binet says: "If ever a question was under controversy it is that of the value of correlations. Two absolutely contradictory opinions are submitted and both claim the force of proofs." Then he cites Thorndike as one for whom "the mind is only an absolutely heterogeneous collection of faculties which are juxtaposed but remain rigorously independent" (p. 51, quoted by Hart and Spearman, *Les Idées modernes sur les enfants*, 1909, p. 242).

Quite undisturbed, therefore, by the controversy, Binet invented intelligence tests which have swept over the civilized world and have been regarded as one of the greatest achievements of applied psychology, the famous Binet scale. Each test consists of four or five little questions for each age, and the result is surprisingly accurate

and valid. Now if the mind is a "host" or "multitude" of minute independent functions, it is difficult to see how a child's intelligence could be determined by five or ten or fifteen questions. Yet it is commonly admitted that the Binet scale does grade intelligences.

I have begged your attention to all this because our teaching, in its methods and in its subject-matter, is influenced enormously by our conception of the mind. Even a pupil's study is influenced by his conception of his mind and its activities. Experimental pedagogy finds that the effect of purpose, zeal, or good will is enormous in learning and in schools. Whether we retain well what we have learned depends in large measure on whether we learned it with a purpose to retain it. It would then be important if we could honestly ask students to study for the very purpose of training. This I think we have a right to do. Students will not give up the training purpose. The auditorium of a certain high school of my acquaintance has its walls lined with banners won in track meets, in basket-ball, etc. This indicates whither the pupils' training purpose is directed. Physical education is fortunate in having a monopoly of this aim.

But if purpose is of prime importance to the success of the pupil it is much more important to the success of the teacher, and I came here chiefly to say that now at last educational psychology contains nothing proved to force conscientious teachers to believe their work is useless and their efforts hopeless, even though they be teachers of the classics. Those subjects have not lost their power to enable a youth who studies them the better to use his wits, the more readily to detect relations, and the more habitually to think honestly and accurately. Because they are difficult these subjects do, I still believe, develop the power of voluntary attention, and because they are definite I think they lead the pupil to despise guess-work and charlatanism, because they will not lend themselves to guess-work. At present the case claimed against these subjects has not been proved. It may be proved tomorrow, but it is more likely to require twenty years of patient experimentation, and the indications at present are that the verdict will be for and not against the usefulness of these studies. Experimental psychology and teaching experience never promised so much as today to come into agreement.

The chief difficulty with experiments to determine the value of any study lies in the fact that pupils' powers are being trained by all their studies. It is, therefore, very difficult to eliminate the influence of activities with which the experiment does not deal. Assuming, however, that this can be done, the method of Winch seems most promising and most reliable.

Suppose we wish to know whether the verbal memory training required in Latin does not damage substance-memory for history. Winch's method could be applied as follows:

Test a large group of students in a history assignment, or on three history assignments. Then divide this large group into two groups equal in ability as shown by the test exercises in history. Let one of these groups spend an hour a day for two or three weeks in the study of Latin, the other an equal time distributed in the same way on some more remote subject, as physics. Then test both groups once more on history. If the Latin group had not worked to the fatigue point and yet did poorer work than at first, we might decide that verbal memory for Latin antagonizes logical memory for history. If the physics group did better than at first and better than the Latin group, that study would seem to serve logical memory for history (if other studies had not brought about the change), because we are dealing with groups, not with individuals. If this condition appeared in all groups for numerous experiments there would finally be no gainsaying the result. Such agreement could be obtained by the expenditure of care and pains and patience.

A more interesting experiment, I think, could be made as follows: Select two groups of students each of equal ability as shown by their marks in three studies, say physics, chemistry, and physiography for one group, physics, chemistry, and Latin for the other. Then ask the members of each group to interpret a knotty contract, an abstract of title, a law, and the description of a railroad's condition as shown by a manual of statistics. An equal amount of time should be given for both groups. The result will be better if all the work is done individually.

My own opinion is that Latin would not suffer even if law students were included in the other group.

A similar test might be carried out with some difficult diagram as the test object. Apparently hundreds of students cannot understand the structure of the ear, either because they have not sufficient visual imagination or because they cannot get the meanings of the phrases which describe the diagrams—I think the latter. Now two otherwise equal groups, one from the class in manual training, the other from the Latin class, might be compared with some such difficult interpretation of meaning of the test object.

The plans and specifications for an ordinary dwelling submitted to two such groups would be an excellent test of their abilities to interpret difficult subject-matter. If both specifications and plans were submitted I think the Latin group might come off best.

Finally test a group of pupils who do not study German on learning German words. Then divide them according to their success in this and let one group study Latin for three to six weeks, the other history. Then test both groups on German words again. The experiment should also be done with one group actually studying German, the other Latin. Only after such experiments shall we *know* whether we have one memory for Latin words and a totally different one for German words.

If one will be careful to get equal groups equal in rank, as shown by Winch's procedure, and to eliminate or equalize other influences, it would be possible, I think, finally to tell what influence the moderate exercise of one mental power has on others and what influence its extreme and prolonged exercise may have. For moderate and excessive exercise seem at present to have exactly opposite effects.

For this reason and because the subject becomes practiced in the test material, the amount of practice must be carefully determined for each experiment.

However, all this is simply recommending Mr. Winch's method. Beginning with that, take at least twice as much time in devising an adaptation of it as you expect the entire experiment to require. Careless methods have produced most of the errors in experimental psychology.

In Memoriam

JAMES IRVING MANATT

[Born February 17, 1845; died February 13, 1915]

James Irving Manatt, of Scotch-Irish descent with a dash of Huguenot blood, as he has described himself, was born on a farm near Millersburg, Ohio, in 1845. When he was very young his father removed to and settled in Iowa, then a frontier state. Here the boy worked on the farm and, although of delicate constitution, by the force of his inborn impulse wrested from the most meager opportunities the elements of a fructifying education.

On reaching the legal age of nineteen, he gladly responded, in the last year of the Civil War, to Lincoln's call for more volunteers and, enlisting as a private in the Forty-sixth Iowa Infantry, he had the opportunity for active service before the close of hostilities.

After the war he entered Iowa College at Grinnell and was graduated with the degree of B.A. in 1869. It is significant of his lifelong impulse for writing that he first joined the staff of the *Chicago Evening Post* and was in its service for about a year. He was then called back to Iowa College and carried on the duties of the Greek department there for one year. This year revealed to him definitely his life-work and also his need of more extended training. Accordingly, he resigned his post and went for graduate work to New Haven where he had the inspiration of being under—among other teachers—that prince of philologists, William Dwight Whitney. Systematic study of Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin formed the basis of his examination for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy which he received at Yale in 1873.

In 1874 he went to Denison University in Ohio as *ad interim* professor of Greek, and after two years in this service his unquenched desire for additional equipment took him to Leipzig for a year's study in Greek and Germanics under Georg Curtius and Friedrich Zarncke.

For the next seven years, from 1877 to 1884, he was professor of Greek at Marietta College. During the five years following he

was chancellor of the new University of Nebraska which he administered with energy. His part in laying wisely the foundations of a future great state university was later recognized when, in 1902, the degree of LL.D. was there conferred upon him as a "builder of the University."

He gladly escaped, however, from the irksome task of administrative duties and the threatened atrophy of his scholarship by accepting under President Harrison the post of United States consul at Athens which he held for four years (1889-93). Under the liberal interpretation sometimes allowed to representatives in government posts, the American consulate at Athens became the clearing-house for travelers whose interest included the land, the literature, and monuments of ancient or modern Greece.

This long acquaintance with the language and people of modern Greece and the opportunity to assimilate the spirit of ancient Hellenism, as reflected in its many remains under its own skies on mainland and islands, was less usual then than it is now. A belief in the continuity and imperishable vitality of Greek life and literature was woven into the very fiber of Manatt's teaching and speaking, both in public and in private. And through the remainder of his life he always retained the sympathetic understanding of the modern Greeks that matured in these years of association with peasant and politician.

Thus equipped, Professor Manatt came from Athens to Providence to take up, as successor to Albert Harkness, the professorship of Greek at Brown University where, for more than twenty years, up to the time of his death, he taught Greek from the linguistic, literary, and historical sides, with all the fervor of a propagandist.

For many years he struggled heroically with asthma, sleepless by night, working by day. Many men would have contented themselves, under such a disability, with a faithful observance of the recurring round of college engagements. Manatt met these obligations and did far more by the written and the spoken word.

In 1888 he edited Xenophon's *Hellenica* in the "College Series" of Greek authors; in 1897 he published in collaboration with Dr. Tsountas, *The Mycenaean Age*, a sumptuous volume in which, by

the clarity of his style, he made accessible and intelligible to English readers the amazing record of the still unfolding prehistoric story as far as it could be told at that date. In preparing this book he had the advantage of an intimate acquaintance with Dr. Schliemann as well as other scholars, Greek and foreign, with Dr. Dörpfeld at the head, whom he had known in Athens.

In 1913 he published, in London and Boston, *Aegean Days*, a series of essays, of different dates, reflecting frankly his personal experiences, both old and recent, in the Greek islands from Lesbos to Leucas.

At the time of his death he was just finishing a new edition of *The Mycenaean Age*, rendered imperative by the accumulated discoveries of the last eighteen years. The manuscript for this book the London Macmillans have in hand, lacking an introductory chapter¹ on Crete which will now be written by an English scholar.

Aside from his books, the list of Professor Manatt's contributions to reviews and magazines would be too long to rehearse, even if I were able to gather in the scattered data. They are varied but reflect always a first-hand acquaintance with the matter in question, and they have performed a very real service in bringing to a wider public the vital interest of Hellenic study. A few of these may be noted, e.g., in the *Independent*, to which he was a frequent contributor: "Dr. Dörpfeld and His Mission to America" (October 15, 1896); "Birthday of Free Greece" (July 1, 1897); "Dr. Heinrich Schliemann" (———?); "In Low-lying Lacedaemon" (June 7, 1900); "The Root of the Matter" (1902); in the *Atlantic Monthly* the following: "Behind Hymettus (ca. 1890); "Bacchylides and His Native Isle" (March, 1898); "Timotheos and *The Persians*" (February, 1904), etc.; in the *Review of Reviews*: "The Living Greek" (April, 1895); "Bacchylides, The Risen Bard" (April, 1898); in the *National Educational Review*: "The Future of Greek Studies" (1902); in the *New England Magazine*: "A New England College in the West" (1898). These,

¹ Dr. Karo, secretary of the German Institute in Athens, had prepared this chapter but found himself unwilling, after the declaration of war, to have his name attached to any book published in England. Manatt, although greatly embarrassed by the delay entailed, refused with characteristic scrupulousness to use an unsigned contribution.

with a pamphlet: *Are We to Give Up the Pauline Areopagus?* and *Our Hellenic Heritage*, may serve to show how current topics, scholarly or educational, popular, and political, continually led him to point the moral and adorn the tale of "the glory that was Greece."

In addition to his published work and perhaps equally effective have been his many public speeches at banquets, alumni gatherings, and Phi Beta Kappa and other societies, learned and unlearned. He was continually in demand as a speaker and his audiences had come to expect words of both wit and wisdom. Although as a young man he shrank from public speaking, he grew to be an orator in the literal sense of the word when he had perfected, by severe self-criticism, an English style that was in itself the best argument for a prolonged study of the classics.

It is not, I think, without profit thus briefly to recall the various phases of Professor Manatt's life through which he moved to his appointed goal. As farmer-boy, soldier in the ranks, student, professor, administrator, consul, orator, teacher, writer, and scholar he preserved and deepened the steady undercurrent of religious belief, strong principle, generosity, and uncompromising hostility to meanness.

FRANCIS G. ALLINSON

PROVIDENCE, R. I.

[It is sad to be called upon to add still other notices to that just given, in memorial of Charles Wesley Bain and of E. W. Coy, news of whose death has but recently come to hand.—EDITOR.]

CHARLES WESLEY BAIN

Professor Charles Wesley Bain, head of the Department of Greek at the University of North Carolina, died at Chapel Hill on March 15. He was born in Portsmouth, Virginia, in 1864. After preparing at Galt's School in Norfolk and at McCabe's University School in Petersburg, he went to the University of Virginia; in 1895 he received the degree of Master of Arts from the University of the South at Sewanee, Tennessee. He began his career as teacher in a private school in Savannah, Georgia. He then taught in the Rugby High School of Louisville, and later was classical

master at McCabe's School. From 1895 to 1898 he was head master of the grammar school at Sewanee. In 1898 he was called to the chair of Latin and Greek at the University of South Carolina, and in 1910 to the headship of the Department of Greek at the University of North Carolina. In 1913 the University of South Carolina conferred upon him the degree of Doctor of Laws.

Professor Bain was the author of the *First Latin Book* in the Gildersleeve-Lodge Series of Latin Classics, of an edition of *Books vi and vii of the Odyssey*, and of a book of selections from Ovid for use in the schools. He wrote also the article on classical literature in the *Encyclopedia Americana*. He was a contributor to the *American Journal of Philology*, the *Sewanee Review*, the *Nation*, and the *Studies in Philology* published by the University of North Carolina.

His special bent was toward Greek syntax, and in this branch he was rapidly winning a position of marked eminence. He combined, as few men are able to do, the utmost exactness in investigation with that enthusiastic and interesting presentation of his subject in the classroom which won for him the whole-hearted application and loyal devotion of his pupils. He was a man of the highest principles in public and private life and was possessed of the courtly manners of the gentleman. He was in himself a fitting exemplification of the cultural value of the classics. He was at all times accessible alike to students and to colleagues, a most delightful comrade, a loyal and trustworthy friend, a gentleman, and a scholar.

E. W. COY

On April 1, at the board meeting of the Union Board of High Schools in Cincinnati, Superintendent Condon reported as follows:

With deepest regret, I announce the death on Monday, March 29, of Mr. E. W. Coy, who in 1913 retired from the principalship of the Hughes High School, after filling that position with pre-eminent ability and distinction for forty years.

Born in Thorndyke, Maine, on December 6, 1832, Mr. Coy graduated from Brown University in 1858 and became principal of the Peoria, Illinois, High School, where he served for thirteen years. In 1871 he was appointed to the

principalship of the High-School Department of the State Normal School at Normal, Illinois. Two years later, in 1873, he came to Cincinnati as principal of Hughes.

He filled many positions of distinction in the educational world, and his reputation for scholarly attainments and his influence in educational affairs was nation-wide. As president of the National Council of Education he received one of the highest honors that can be given to a member of the profession by the teachers of the nation. As the author of a widely used textbook in Latin, he has exercised a wide influence on the teaching of the subject in many schools. In 1886 he received from Princeton the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. After his retirement from the principalship of Hughes he maintained an active interest in all educational affairs; he was a frequent and always a welcome and honored guest at educational gatherings and at the school of which he had so long been the head.

Such service as Mr. Coy gave cannot be fully measured nor adequately rewarded. He was one of Cincinnati's noblest and most useful citizens—living, a power for good, and dying, he leaves to the city a rich legacy of high ideals and a memory of noble service—a memory that cannot die.

As a slight mark of appreciation and respect I directed that on the day of the funeral the Hughes High School be closed for the entire day, and that all other high schools of the city should close at noon.

Notes

[Contributions in the form of notes or discussions should be sent to John A. Scott, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.]

THE LAW OF POETELIUS ON CORRUPT PRACTICES AT ELECTIONS

In the year 358 B.C. the "lex Poetelia" was passed, with the design of restricting in some measure the activities of candidates for office. The law is thus described by Livy: "de ambitu ab C. Poetelio tribuno plebis auctoribus patribus tum primum ad populum latum est, eaque rogatione novorum maxime hominum ambitionem, qui nundinas et conciliabula obire soliti erant, compressam credebant" (Livy vii. 15, 12). The Romans had indicated, by a law, passed sixty-five years earlier (Livy iv. 25. 13), their belief that candidates for office should adopt no means for influencing the votes of citizens. Evidently canvassing had proceeded openly during this interval, apparently even more openly than before the first law on the subject. Now the Romans saw the hopelessness of their effort to stop the activities of candidates, or possibly they came to a realization that canvassing in a moderate manner was quite proper. In this spirit they endeavored to restrict canvassing to certain places, or perhaps it would be more true to say that they refused to permit it any longer to interfere with the regular business of the citizens. However, this explanation does not at all square with the account of Livy. He says plainly that the senate wished to prevent new men, of course plebeians, from gaining political recognition, and therefore passed a bill to the effect that they should not conduct their canvassing at the markets or at country gatherings. But this interpretation cannot be correct.

Only eight years earlier the Licinian-Sextian laws had been enacted by the people after a bitter struggle lasting for ten years. The vital point in the struggle was the contention on the part of the plebeians that men of their own class, the new men, should have admission to the consulship, the highest office in the state. And now, just eight years later, so Livy says, the senate induced a tribune of the people to present to the voters the first measure ever presented to them in this way, asking them to pass a bill that would assuredly make ineffective that law for which they had struggled so long. One can readily believe that a tribune could be secured who would perform this act of faithlessness to his party, for it was by the veto of tribunes that the senate had succeeded for ten years in postponing action on the Licinian-Sextian Laws. But, if the end to be gained were what Livy thinks it was, it is inconceivable that the people could have been induced to vote for the new measure.

The plebeians were often hoodwinked by the nobility, but the instance here assumed by Livy surpasses all belief. The people were far from being

satisfied with their success against the nobles eight years before. They still had the utmost distrust for those who tried to keep them from political advancement. And so they continued the struggle until they succeeded, twenty years later, in opening the praetorship to plebeians. Even when they had gained such admission to office as they desired, they kept up the fight until, by the Hortensian law of 287 B.C., they acquired for the plebeian assembly an absolute right to legislate for the whole Body of citizens. Under these circumstances we cannot credit Livy's statement regarding the reasons for the passage of the Poetelian law.

Livy is probably right in saying that the law was passed, and he is also probably right about its specific prohibition, but the occasion for its proposal must be quite the opposite of that which he gives. The most reasonable hypothesis is that the people became weary of the persistency of the candidates of either class, who were a nuisance to them in their business or in their pleasure, and induced the tribune Poetelius to secure the sanction of the senate for putting the matter to the test of a popular vote. The senate could not well refuse, after their recent severe struggle with the people, and consented to allow the proposal to be thus submitted. An enactment of this kind would bear more heavily on the patricians than on the plebeians. The wording of the law indicates that candidates had already contracted the habit, characteristic of the later republic, of going to the towns round about Rome securing support. The leisure class of the patricians could do this more easily than the plebeian candidates, and as a result the prohibition of this form of activity would injure their canvassing more than it would that of their plebeian opponents.

R. W. HUSBAND

DARTMOUTH COLLEGE

LEX CORNELIA DE AMBITU

It would be reasonable to assume that Sulla was responsible for legislation on the subject of corrupt practices, just as he was for legislation on practically the whole range of the criminal law, but the direct evidence for such an assumption is very slight. In fact only a single passage of a scholiast on Cicero's oration for Publius Cornelius Sulla contains a statement that may refer to an enactment of this kind. The writer of the Scholia Bobiensia on a statement of Cicero (*Pro Sulla* v. 17) contrasts the penalties prescribed by the earlier laws on corrupt practices at elections with those prescribed by the laws of Calpurnius and Cicero. The passage reads: "Nec moverit nos quod ita loquatur de Sulla Cicero, quasi damnatus crimine ambitus habuerit Romae demorandi facultatem: habuit enim secundum legem Calpurniam. Nam superioribus temporibus damnati lege Cornelia hoc genus poenae ferebant, ut magistratum petitione per decem annos abstinerent. Aliquanto postea serverior lex Calpurnia et pecunia multavit et in perpetuum honoribus iussit carere damnatos; habebant tamen licentiam Romae morandi. Postea, iam damnatis Sulla et

Autronio, poenam de ambitu graviorem consules C. Antonius et Cicero sanxerunt, ut praeter haec veteribus legibus constituta etiam exilio multarentur."

If a writer in imperial times used the phrase "lex Cornelia" it would naturally be assumed that he was speaking of legislation by Sulla. Many instances of this could be cited from the *Digest* of Justinian. So Mommsen (*De Collegiis*, 44; *Strafrecht*, 867); Rinkes (*De Crimine Ambitus*, 52) and Greenidge (*Legal Procedure*, 423) think that a "lex Cornelia de ambitu" must be referred to Sulla, on the basis of the statements made by this scholiast, while Stangl (*Ciceronis Orationum Scholiastae*, II, 78), Meyer (*Oratorum Romanorum Fragmenta*, 89), and Holden (*Ciceronis pro Plancio Oratio*, Introduction, xxvii) believe that the scholiast had in mind one of the much earlier Cornelian laws on the same subject.

In the year 181 a law on corrupt practices was proposed and carried by the consuls P. Cornelius and M. Baebius; "et leges de ambitu consules ex auctoritate senatus ad populum tulerunt" (Livy xl. 19). Again, about the year 159 a new law, commonly called the "lex Cornelia-Fulvia," was enacted: "lex de ambitu lata" (Livy, *Epit.* xlvii). We have no information about the contents of either of these laws.

Apart from a general probability that Sulla secured some form of legislation on the topic, the penalty mentioned by the scholiast as that prevailing "superioribus temporibus" fits the time of Sulla rather than the time of any of the earlier laws. The statement of Polybius (vi. 56) that at Carthage candidates openly purchased office, while at Rome men were punished for this by death, could not be true in the second century before Christ. And yet the penalties prescribed by Sulla for criminal offenses were usually less severe than before his time. It is impossible to believe that in the year 181 B.C., or in 159, the penalty would have been as mild as stated by the scholiast.

The words of the scholiast at the beginning of the sentence describing the penalties under the "lex Calpurnia" indicate that there was no long interval between the enactment of the "lex Calpurnia" and the enactment of the "lex Cornelia" which preceded it. The phrase "aliquanto postea" would be very inappropriate if an interval of 90, or 115, years was intended. We are forced, therefore, to conclude that, by an enactment of Sulla, the penalty for corrupt practices at election was fixed at exclusion from office for a period of ten years.

R. W. HUSBAND

DARTMOUTH COLLEGE

HOMERICA

Δ 392: ἀψ ἀναερχομένῳ πυκινὸν λόχον εἶσαν ἄγοντες. So the MSS read, or else the metrically impossible ἀναερχομένῳ. The hiatus in ἀναερχομένῳ is of course highly suspicious. Barnes, observing the lack of anything for the participle to modify, wrote ἀψ οἱ ἀναερχομένῳ, and Bentley ἀψ ἄρ' ἀναερχομένῳ, but both do too much violence to the MSS tradition. Nobody seems to have thought of reading ϵ' , i.e., $\epsilon(\alpha\iota)$, which makes no change in the MSS tradition, and accounts for the hiatus (ἀψ ἀνά ϵ' ἐρχομένῳ). Examples of the disappear-

ance of the third personal pronoun from the MSS when its vowel has suffered elision (e.g., Ω 154) are so numerous that they hardly need to be mentioned. Instances of the elision and consequent disappearance of the dative (φοι) may be found in Van Leeuwen, *Enchiridion Dictionis Epicae*, pp. 70-71.

Ω 41 ff.:

λέων δ' ὥς ἀγρία οἶδε
ὅς τ' ἐπεὶ ἄρ' μεγάλη τε βίη καὶ ἀγήνορι θυμῷ
εἷξας εἶσ' ἐπὶ μῆλα βροτῶν ἵνα δαῖτα λάβῃσι·

The difficulty with this passage, of course, is that there are two relatives (ὅς and ἐπεὶ) and only one finite verb (εἷσι). Most attempts at emendation have centered around the idea of getting two verbs, usually by changing εἷξας into a finite verb (εἷξῃσ' Nicanor, *φείξασκ'* Bentley). Nauck suggested that the trouble might lie in ἐπεὶ ἄρ', but he did not attempt to diagnose the case further. It seems perhaps possible, by the change of one letter, to get a simple and rational reading, i.e., ΟΣ ΤΕ ΦΕΙ (i.e., ὅς τε ἦ. Compare just above, Ω 36, ἦ τ' ἀλόχῃ . . . καὶ μητέρει.). On the assumption that this was the original reading it is easy enough to explain how a scribe, failing to apprehend it and having in mind the more famous and elaborate comparison of P 657 ff., changed the φ into π to correspond with the ὅς τ' ἐπεὶ ἄρ' . . . at the beginning of P 658, and so spoiled grammar and sense; for ἐπεὶ in a generalizing clause would naturally call for the subjunctive (as in P 658 and in many other places), while ὅς in a clause of particular description would properly be construed with the indicative (as in P 664, Π 755, *et al.*), and the elegant manner of keeping the verb in reserve in P 657 ff. only serves to emphasize the inelegance of a missing verb in this particular place. Instances of the corruption of φ to π are naturally not numerous, since the tendency, of course, would be to substitute familiar and colorless words like τ' (τε) or ῥ' (ῥα). In Hesychius words beginning with φ are usually listed under Γ or Β (Γοῖνος· οἶνος. Γίσγον· ἴσον. Βείκατι· εἴκοσι. Λάκωνες). Perhaps, however, we may recognize φ in παγὰς (i.e., φαγὰς)· γῆ τις ὑπὸ τῶν γεωργῶν, in πεπωγμένον (i.e., φεφωγμένον, perf. of ἀγνυμι)· κεκλασμένον, in πολλέων (i.e., φολλέων)· πολυκίνητος, and in some other words in Hesychius. Van Herwerden, *Lex. Graec. suppl. et dialect.*, quotes also (s.v. ἄτα) ἄπατος (i.e., ἄφατος)· ἀθῶος, ἀζήμιος. However, there is no need to go so far afield as Hesychius, since in our MSS examples of the garbling of Vau are extremely plentiful. One need only glance through Van Leeuwen's text to assure himself of the wholesale fashion in which it has been done. Is this (Ω 42) still another case?

FRANK COLE BABBITT

TRINITY COLLEGE

THE ABU SYMBEL INSCRIPTION AND MODERN CHARACTERS

A striking illustration of the extent to which we unconsciously make use of the heritage of classical antiquity was brought home to me some time ago by an experiment with the letters of a Greek inscription.

Observing that the characters in one of the Abu Symbel inscriptions were very much like the corresponding ones in use today, it occurred to me that it

might prove interesting to transfer some of them to a modern setting. I therefore had a photograph made of the first of the inscriptions (given, e.g., by Roberts, *Greek Epigraphy*, I [Cambridge, 1887], 152).

ΒΑΣΙΛΕΥΣΕΛΘΟΝΤΟΣΕΞΕΛΕΦΑΝΤΙΝΑΝΥΔΜΑΤΙΧΟ
 ΝΑΥΤΑΕΓΡΑΥΑΝΤΟΙΣΥΝΥΑΜΜΑΤΙΧΟΙΤΟΙΘΕΟΚΛΟΣ
 ΕΡΛΕΟΝΑΦΟΝΔΕΚΕΡΚΙΟΣΚΑΤΥΓΕΘΕΙΝΙΣΟΠΟΤΑΜΟΣ
 ΑΝΙΘΑΛΟΓΡΟΣΟΣΘΒΕΠΟΤΑΣΙΜΤΟΑΙΓΥΠΤΙΟΣΔΕΡΜΑΣΙΣ
 ΕΓΡΑΦΕΔΑΜΕΑΡΤΟΝΑΜΟΙΒΙΧΟΚΑΙΠΕΛΕΟΣΟΔΑΜΟ

When king Psammatichos had come to Elephantine, those who sailed with Psammatichos the son of Theocles wrote this. They proceeded above Kerkis as far as the river allowed. Potasimto led the foreigners [the Greeks] and Amasis the Egyptians. Archon the son of Amoebichos and Pelekos the son of Eudamos wrote our names [us].

The inscriptions were cut on the legs of two colossal statues by a detachment of Greek and other soldiers returning through Abu Symbol from an exploring expedition up the Nile. Their date is pretty certainly to be placed between 664 and 589 B.C. Larfeld, in Müller's *Handbuch*, I, 5 (revised edition, Munich, 1914), p. 267, assigns them to a date not later than 650 B.C.

The characters are therefore around twenty-five hundred years old. In order to accomplish my design, from my photograph of the inscription I cut out the individual letters that I needed and put them together so as to form the following legend:

THE PAST IS NOT SO DEAD

AS SOME MEN STATE IT TO BE

I used twelve characters—one more than half of those occurring in the inscription; and there are three more (K, V, and X), with a probable fourth (Q) that would have looked perfectly natural in an English sentence. I had to take slight liberties with the η and the ρ, but in the case of all the other letters the value of the sign in the modern sentence corresponds to that in the Greek.

Just about 73 per cent, then, of these twenty-five-century-old characters could, and very naturally might, be used by an American urchin of the year of grace 1915 to scratch a breezy greeting in the fresh mortar of a granolithic walk; and I venture to believe that not one in five hundred of those who decry the study of "dead languages" would pause, if he chanced to read it in passing by, to note that anything about it was unusual!

CHARLES B. RANDOLPH

CLARK COLLEGE

Current Events

[Edited by Clarence W. Gleason, Roxbury Latin School, Roxbury, Mass., for the territory covered by the Association of New England and the Atlantic States; Daniel W. Lothman, East High School, Cleveland, Ohio, for the Middle States, west to the Mississippi River; Walter Miller, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo., for the Southern States; and by Frederick C. Eastman, the University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, for the territory west of the Mississippi, exclusive of Louisiana and Texas. This department will present everything that is properly news—occurrences from month to month, meetings, changes in faculties, performances of various kinds, etc. All news items should be sent to the associate editors named above.]

Georgia

Bessie Tift College.—The Junior class of Bessie Tift College, Forsyth, Georgia, presented the *Electra* of Euripides on the evening of February 19. The verse translation of Gilbert Murray was used, as the tragedy was produced as a supplement to the study of ancient classic plays that forms a part of the English course. The ideals of the Attic stage were expressed in the simplicity of the open-air setting, which remained unchanged, no less than in the strict adherence to the stately character of ancient tragedy. The vine-covered hut, with thatched roof, with the forest of the painted canvas and a few living trees, constituted the scenic background. Of this picture of the Argos country the peasant appeared an integral part, as with his short leathern tunic and his long shepherd's crook he appeared at early dawn. The actors were given an appearance of greater height and dignity by the long, flowing robes of the himation together with the short chlamys flung gracefully over the left shoulder. The brilliant colors of mantles and tunics contributed to the spectacular effect. The bright hues that prevailed in the costumes of the other actors brought out in sharp contrast Orestes' sober garb and the severe black robe that from the first marked *Electra* as the child of misfortune. The whole was softened by the pale blues and lavenders and greens of the chorus of Argive women in their festal dress.

A distinguishing characteristic of the performance was the manifestation of creative ability on the part of the students, who had themselves made the costumes and contrived the scenery. In the absence of the stage properties of the Attic theater, several expedients were resorted to: Clytemnestra's chariot did not appear upon the stage; instead, the queen and her attendants were represented as having alighted before their entrance. For the *eccyclema*, thralls bore upon the stage the biers upon which lay the bodies of the dead king and queen. At the close of the play, as a substitute for *deus ex machina*, Castor was seen to enter from the side encircled in dazzling light. In general, the performance brought out strongly the effort of Greek tragedy to concentrate upon the central character. From first to last the black-robed, regal *Electra*

dominated the stage. The subordinate actors and the chorus fell sympathetically into harmony with the design of the play, serving mainly to call forth the passions of Electra and to bring into sharp relief the impressiveness of her tragic figure.

Illinois

Chicago.—The Twenty-seventh Educational Conference of Academies and High Schools with the University of Chicago was held on April 16. The conference divided itself into departmental groups but the discussions of all the groups centered around the general topic: The relation of the organized library to the school. Following is the program in detail of the Greek and Latin section, held (and this for the first time) in the new Classics Building.

1. Unfinished Business.
 - a) Report on simplified texts. Elsie Flersheim, Medill High School.
 - b) Report on word-groups. Walter E. Johnson, Lane Technical High School.
 - c) General discussion.
2. The Relation of the Organized Library to Latin in Secondary Schools.

Library Material:

 - a) A list of the best twenty books for reference in the high-school course in Latin including title, date, publishers, price, and a brief statement about each book. H. F. Scott, University High School.
 - b) Periodicals and recent articles of interest to teachers of Latin. Clara G. Sullivan, J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois.
 - c) The use of library materials in topical studies. Mary Zimmerman, John Marshall High School.
 - d) The use of maps, pictures, post-cards, perception-cards, charts, games, museum materials, entertainments, clubs, etc. Laura B. Woodruff, Oak Park High School, Oak Park, Illinois.

Indiana

Union City.—Recently a unique meeting was held by the Latin club of the Union City High School in honor of the German club of the school. The halls and stairways of the school were lighted with long white candles. At the head of the stairs stood a white-draped altar, upon which burned candles and incense. The altar was presided over by a white-clad filleted priest of Apollo who received offerings to the gods and gave in return a program of the evening's entertainment, printed in Latin. A short, interesting program, consisting of the reading of papers and the singing of Latin and German songs, was given in the candle-lighted assembly hall classic with its altars and statuary.

After the program the Latin room, draped simply in white, lighted only by large candelabra containing dozens of white tapers, was thrown open to the sixty or more guests. Two pages in tunics and sandals crowned each guest with a chaplet of ivy leaves. The dinner, served according to a printed Latin menu, consisted of the conventional three parts: *gustus, cena*, and *secunda cena*. It was served by waiters wearing togas and chaplets. The guests expressed

themselves as delighted with the novel effect of the whole affair. Its success was due largely, no doubt, to the fact that it was so entirely free from a modern atmosphere.

Kansas

The Classical Association of Kansas and Western Missouri held its ninth annual meeting with Bethany College at Lindsborg, March 26 and 27. It was a meeting noteworthy for the keen interest manifested and the large number of participants in the open discussions. The program follows: Friday night: Address of Welcome, Dr. E. F. Pihlblad, president, Bethany College; Illustrated Lecture, "Picturesque and Historic Sicily," Dr. Walter Miller, University of Missouri; Saturday morning: President's Address, "Our Possibility in the Study of Ancient Languages," Dr. Irene Nye, Washburn College, Topeka; "An Attempt to Establish a Uniform Grammatical Nomenclature," Miss Lulu Grosh, Wichita High School; "Supervised Study," Miss Martha Thompson, Kansas City (Kan.) High School; "The Teaching of Prose Composition," Mr. W. T. McDonald, Topeka High School; "Library Helps for the High-School Latin Teacher," Dr. E. D. Cressman, University of Kansas; Saturday afternoon: "Seven Greek Allegories and Modern Parallels," Professor Homer K. Ebright, Baker University, Baldwin; Illustrated Lecture, "Athens' Rival in the West," Dr. Walter Miller.

The officers of the Association were: President, Miss Irene Nye, Washburn College; Vice-President, Walter Petersen, Bethany College; Secretary-Treasurer, F. C. Shaw, Westport High School, Kansas City, Missouri; Executive Committee, the foregoing officers and Miss Martha Whitney, Wichita High School; A. L. Wolfe, Park College, Parkville, Missouri.

New York

Rochester.—The "Roman State" of the East High School of Rochester signalized the tenth year of its existence by the presentation of the *Alcestis* of Euripides, in English. This ambitious undertaking proved more successful than had even been hoped. The performance was witnessed by a large and interested audience and held the spectators from beginning to end. To many of the audience, who perhaps came with the feeling that a Greek play was "something one ought to see" rather than something really enjoyable, it must have been a surprise to see how vital and gripping is Euripides played more than two thousand years after it was written. The universal appeal of the emotions portrayed was quite as strong as in any play of Shakespeare's, despite the feeling which one is likely to have that the Greek tragedies are somehow very remote from our modern sphere of ideas. The only liberty taken with the play was the substitution of a chorus of Greek maidens for the chorus of elders in the original. This was not a radical departure, however, as choruses in many of Euripides' other dramas were composed of women. The flowing draperies and filleted hair of the members of the chorus added a very picturesque touch to the performance, and the beautiful setting to the choral odes made the

musical side of the production notable. The music used for the choruses was composed by Charles H. Lloyd for the performance of the *Alcestis* at Oxford in 1887, and appropriately expressed the changing phases of the tragedy. The translation followed was that of Arthur S. Way. The play was presented under the general direction of Dr. Mason D. Gray, head of the classical department of East High School, and was under the auspices of the Rochester Society of the Archaeological Institute of America. It attracted considerable attention and interest outside of school circles, among people interested in things classical, and, to quote one of the Rochester papers, "sounded a new note in the advance of educational dramatics in Rochester."

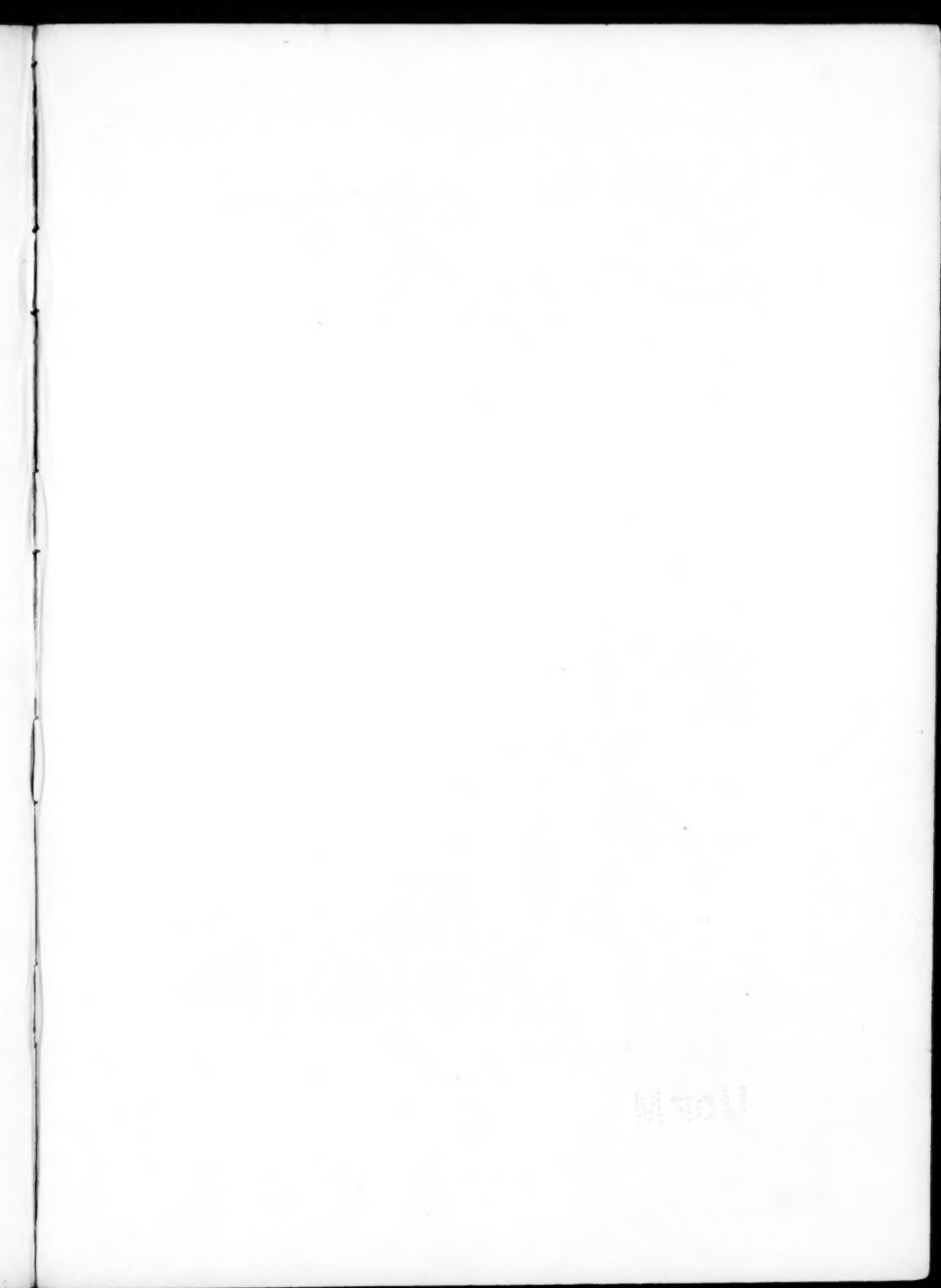
The cast did excellent work for amateur performers and the beautiful lines of the play were given effective rendition. It is a matter of interest that the two leading rôles of Admetus and Alcestis were taken by the two consuls of the "Roman State." The scenery for the play, representing the front of the palace of Admetus, was especially made for the production.

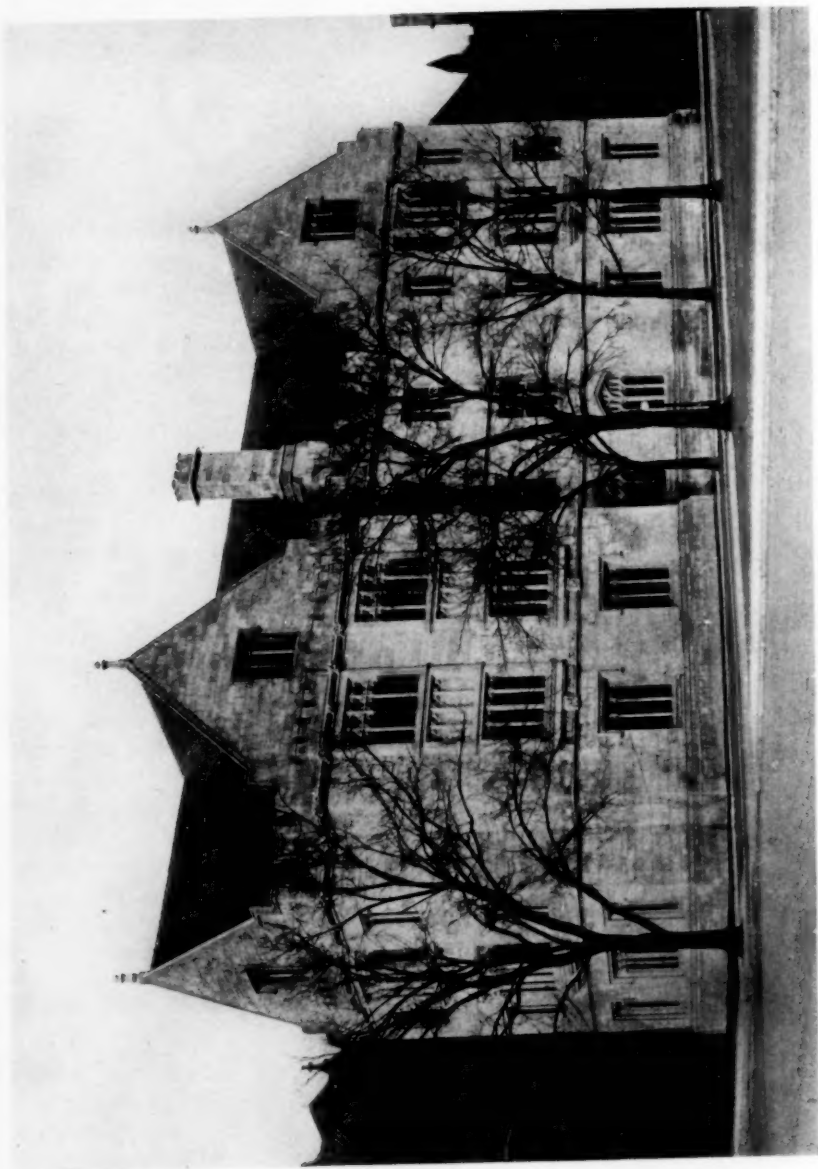
The signal success of the performance has given rise to the suggestion that the play be repeated in an outdoor performance some time in the spring, possibly in one of the public parks of the city. If this is done, the production might approach the Attic model as closely in the externals of setting and scenery as it did this time in the essentials of spirit and feeling.

Ohio

Cleveland.—Recently the teachers and pupils of the Latin department of the Glenville High School, Cleveland, prepared an exhibit to show the practical value of the study of Latin. The exhibit was patterned after that of Miss Sabin, given three years ago in Cincinnati at the meeting of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South, and the information used was based largely on the material in her book *The Relation of Latin to Practical Life*. An interesting section of the exhibit was devoted to a comparison between ancient classical art and architecture, and art and architecture of today. Another section was devoted to an exhibit of letters received for the occasion from eminent men who testified to the value of the study of Latin by telling in what way or to what extent they themselves had profited by such study.

The most original feature of the exhibit, however, and the one which received most attention was the reproduction of a Pompeian room. By means of white pillars, numerous palms, some beautiful pieces of statuary, and a little additional decorating, the library of the school was made to have the appearance of a real Pompeian apartment. The presence of boys and girls in Roman attire to direct visitors and dispense hospitality gave the room all the more a classical resemblance. During the afternoon and evening the rooms of the exhibit were almost continuously crowded with pupils, their parents, and teachers from Glenville High School and from other schools of the city. At least, judged from the standpoint of attendance and enthusiasm manifested, the exhibit was a complete success. The work was done under the general direction of Miss Elizabeth McGorey, one of the teachers of Latin of the school.





THE NEW CLASSICS BUILDING AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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